DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 239 682 JC 840 055

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TITLE Short-Cycle Higher Education: Purposes and Issues.
PUB DATE 83
NOTE 39p.
PUB TYPE Reports - Descriptive (141) -- Viewpoints (120)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Educational Change; Educational Development; *Educational Objectives; Educational Quality; *Educational Trends; *Foreign Countries; Higher Education; Policy Formation; Technical Institutes; Terminal Education; *Two Year Colleges
IDENTIFIERS *Short Cycle Education

ABSTRACT

Citing educational reforms being undertaken in the member nations of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development and in other countries, this paper examines the purposes, distinguishing characteristics, and concerns of short-cycle higher education. First, introductory material offers an overview of postsecondary educational reforms of the past 2 decades, examines the structural place of short-cycle education, and defines short-cycle education as education placed between compulsory and university degree completion in which students engage in postsecondary terminal instruction, curricula leading to university diplomas, and/or continuing or recurrent non-degree classes and activities. The next section discusses the purposes of short-cycle education; i.e., to respond to increasing demands for postcompulsory education from a wide segment of society; to contribute to equalization of educational opportunities; to provide a diversity of studies, primarily in manpower areas; and to facilitate non-traditional practices. A list of the distinctive characteristics of short-cycle education follows, including low fees, accent on instruction, program relevancy, decentralized decision making, and facilitation of community education. Finally, contrasting directions taken by nations involved in structural educational changes are discussed in the areas of policy formation, implementation concerns (e.g., structure, organization, regulation, coordination, finances, and planning), and problems associated with quality. (LAL)

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SHORT-CYCLE HIGHER EDUCATION: PURPOSES AND ISSUES

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1983

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For the last two decades, many countries, notably the OCED-member nations, have been actively engaged in reforming postsecondary education. These changes, undertaken primarily to offer a greater diversity of relevant programming to accommodate larger segments of the society and to gear up for technological developments, have appeared either as a restructuring of secondary education, expansion of existing higher education units into comprehensive colleges or universities, or as new institutions separate from both the secondary and higher (university) systems. All three options may be found in a single country.

The restructuring of secondary education appears as programmatic and administrative separations of the upper-secondary years from the lower-secondary, and has frequently occurred in European countries where, unlike the United States, Canada, and Australia, the comprehensive high school is not the common pattern. In the above-named countries, compulsory education both in terms of years of study and pupil age coincides with the end of the secondary school, while in some nations, Belgium and the Federal Republic of Germany, for example, compulsory schooling is completed between the first two secondary and the second two secondary years. In Austria, Denmark, France, Spain, and Switzerland, compulsory education follows promotion to the upper two secondary years (OECD, 1976, pp. 16 and 17). In other European countries, notably Greece and Turkey, compulsory education ends with the completion of

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elementary or primary education. Throughout Western Europe, shifts in compulsory education are developing quite independently of secondary school structures.

"Upper-secondary" is the term associated with second-cycle education. Students are offered various options to prepare for work, or in other situations for higher (university) education. These structural changes in secondary schooling may occur within compulsory age or may be considered beyond the compulsory years, as in Sweden.

The second order of structural change--to the comprehensive college or university--combines all postcompulsory education in a single organization. This form, as Clark suggests, is in some countries, e.g., The Federal Republic of Germany and Sweden:

> . . . an effort to have it both ways, to allow for differentiation of major parts and, at the same time assign a formal equality that hopefully will keep down invidious distinctions (Clark, 1983, p. 194).

The single unit must be internally diverse with different faculties and programs in serving the variety of students now seeking postcompulsory education. But as Clark indicates, this form is often unstable, "as the more prestigious parts resist the lumping together of everyone and as attentive publics as well as insiders perceive real differences and attach different values to the parts" (Clark, 1983, pp. 194-5). This unrest occurring in Latin America and Yugoslavia, for example, will be discussed in a later section.

Institutions separated structurally from the secondary system and the university are usually placed in the hierarchy between secondary education and the university. Students generally have three options, to

enroll: (1) in postsecondary vocational studies considered terminal, (2) in curricula leading to university diplomas or degrees (first-cycle higher education), or (3) in classes and activities designed for personal development and enrichment. Short-cycle higher education institutions are called colleges (junior colleges, regional colleges, community colleges) or institutes (technical or regional-technical institutes). A few are referred to as universities. A significant number of the total are actually branches of universities. This structural form (University-colleges) is prevalent in Latin American countries, and is also found in the United States.

In all cases, short-cycle colleges offer one or more of the above options. Those referred to as community colleges frequently advertise all three. Those called institutes concentrate on vocational training, and the university-colleges usually emphasize academic preparation. Courses last from two to three years or less, depending on the starting level and the objectives of the particular program. One nation prominent in short-cycle higher education, the Republic of China (Taiwan) has a number of five-year junior colleges. The starting level and length of compulsory education are definitive factors.

This paper will be focused on short-cycle higher education. Except for Sweden where the upper-secondary schools are postcompulsory, upper-secondary schools will not be considered; nor will the more advanced institutions, i.e., the polytechnics of Britain and several Southeast Asian nations, notably Singapore, the Australian colleges or Institutes of Advanced Education established in the State of Victoria, and the French Grandes Ecoles. Many of the advanced colleges grant the Baccalaureate (the first university degree) and are therefore not short-cycle institutions.

Distinguishing characteristics of these institutions will be reviewed in the discussion of purposes, and summarized in a brief section immediately thereafter. Major issues will then be identified with particular attention given in the comparisons of systems and individual institutions to policy formation, policy implementation, and problems associated with quality. Consideration will be given to relationships between compulsory and postcompulsory education with particular concern for short-cycle higher education and the university.

Material will be drawn from several general sources: studies and other definitive writing published by OECD, publications of the Paris-based Institute for Studies in Research and Higher Education, articles found in several international journals, and papers of the author resulting from visits to various countries, some extended some brief.

First, a definition should be presented. A discussion of distinguishing characteristics of short-cycle higher education institutions will be found after a review of purposes. Short-cycle higher education is education placed between compulsory (often ending with secondary school) and university degree completion, where students engage in: (1) postcompulsory/often post-secondary studies considered terminal, (2) curricula leading to university diplomas and degrees, and/or (3) continuing or recurrent non-degree classes and activities. Some institutions are called universities, some are branches of universities, but most are structurally independent. In all cases, short-cycle institutions or systems offer one or more of the above programs in a postcompulsory, often postsecondary, setting.

DISCUSSION OF PURPOSES

Four purposes of short-cycle higher education were initially identified and briefly described in a 1973 OECD publication (OECD, 1973, pp. 21-22). These were viewed as limitations of the university--functions that the traditional university was unwilling or incapable to assume. Despite notable exceptions, the same reactions appear to be valid today. In some situations, recent changes in the design or operation of universities were initiated by short-cycle institutions. For example, student services including counseling and advising were initially introduced into Sri Lankan higher education by the Junior University Colleges. Inter-disciplinary courses were developed by faculties of the Norwegian District Colleges as pre-baccalaureate majors. These innovations produced rippling effects on postcompulsory education, especially within the university systems. In Sri Lanka, university campuses began to make similar appointments, and in Norway, the University on pressure from the Ministry, named a committee chaired by a leading professor to develop guidelines and policies on interdisciplinary course exchange.

Purpose 1

TO RESPOND TO INCREASING DEMANDS FOR POSTCOMPULSORY EDUCATION FROM A WIDE SEGMENT OF THE SOCIETY

Demand for postcompulsory advanced education increased rapidly following the social revolutions that appeared worldwide in the 1960s. In commenting on these dramatic developments, Coombs referred to "a world educational crisis--more subtle and less graphic than a 'food crisis' or a 'military crisis,' but no less weighted with dangerous potentialities" (Coombs, 1970, p. 4). During the post-war period, community colleges in the United States enjoyed spectacular growth in

size and programmatic diversity, resulting from greatly expanded demand for educational opportunities bolstered by favorable economic conditions.

The Norwegian Regional College System is a prime example of a government's response to demands for postcompulsory education. Created in 1969 as district colleges designed primarily to offer regionally-vital vocational courses and adult and recurrent education, these short-cycle colleges also relieved pressure on the universities. The colleges, now totalling 11, belong to a regional higher education system comprised of technical and maritime colleges, teacher training institutes, conservatories of music, colleges in the health sector, and the original district colleges. All institutions of higher education have joined the regional system except the four universities and a few private colleges. Seventeen regions have been created, and the clustering of educational institutions and service units in the regions is well underway. The student transfer rate between regional colleges and universities, although declining, is still about 20 percent (Hanisch, 1981, pp. 19-21).

Democratization of postcompulsory education has also moved ahead in Sweden. Rather than a separate system, structural change has occurred in the upper-secondary schools and universities, themselves. Regionality and comprehensiveness have been major reform goals. Changes recommended by the 1968 Education Commission, referred to as U68, were aimed at making higher education available to larger segments of the population and lessening the invidiousness (Clark's reference) between university degrees and non-university certificates and diplomas. The 1973 final report directed attention to adult and recurrent educational opportunities in postcompulsory institutions.

To approach these goals, the entire range of technical training was organized within five occupational clusters, and existing institutions were dramatically reduced from 71 to 19 comprehensive regional universities. Throughout the regional system, education was to be more occupationally oriented. The consolidated universities were also encouraged to strengthen adult and recurrent education (Thomasson, 1975). Key phrases used to summarize the current system include "broadened recruitment," "linkages with work," "decentralization of decision-making power," and "participation by various interest groups" (Ekholm, 1983, p. 17).

Swedish upper-secondary schools, while considered secondary, are not compulsory. However, the schools are planned for 100 percent of the appropriate population cohort, and compulsory school leavers are encouraged to continue. Unlike other European nations, Sweden does not require a single final examination to complete an upper-secondary program. Two types of study are recommended: 3-year programs with theoretical orientation and 2-year programs primarily vocational. A balance between the two forms is also recommended to enable students in one program to add studies in the other. One-third of the places in upper-secondary education are to be saved for direct transfer to universities. Choices of classes and admission regulations of the receiving institutions are important transfer considerations (Ekholm, pp. 13 and 26). Potential for change in Swedish higher education apparently lies with the upper-secondary school.

Structural changes in Norway and Sweden illustrate the three patterns of postsecondary reform: restructuring secondary education, creating a separate postcompulsory system, and diversifying existing higher education units. In each setting, the expansion of programs and services to satisfy new clients continues to be a prime objective.

Purpose II

TO CONTRIBUTE TO EQUALIZATION OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

Short-cycle systems created in response to the massification of higher education, prompted attention to questions related to access, equal opportunity, programming, and cost--questions that had been introduced in the United States two decades earlier (see Burn, 1971, chapter 2, for an illuminating description of responses in nine OECD countries to massification of higher education). The 1972 report of the Canadian Ontario Commission on Post-secondary Education announced the challenge that initiated action in many nations:

> We . . . stress the encouragement of lifelong education, part-time school attendance, and new ways of delivering educational services. We have adapted the principle that all educational services should be more and more open to the public, and indeed, integrated with the cultural and education activities of the community. We . . . offer recommendations that would safeguard the present diversity and introduce additional forms of educational services and alternatives (Commission on Post-Secondary Education in Ontario, 1972, pp. 13-14).

Of all nations, the United States and Japan are two having progressed most rapidly toward goals announced by the Ontario Commission: accessibility, diversity, flexibility, and openness.

Immediately after World War II, the American short-cycle movement entered a dramatic growth period. Accessibiity, diversity, flexibility, and openness became key goals. Community colleges gathered momentum and began to offer comprehensive curricula--something for everybody--at minimal cost. These institutions split from the short-cycle types referred to as junior colleges and technical institutes. By the late

1970s, 40 percent of all first-time college full-time freshmen were enrolled in community colleges (Cohen and Brawer, 1982, p. 16). In the 1980-81 academic year, 7.1 percent of all adults (18 years or older) and 40 percent of all undergraduate students were enrolled in a community, technical, or junior college. The American Association of Community and Junior Colleges proudly announced that a short-cycle college was within reasonable commuting distance for more than 90 percent of all Americans (AACJC, 1983, p. 2), and that covering the American landscape were about 1,220 community, technical, and junior colleges. Approximately 1,055 are public-supported, 164 independent; 360 are urban colleges, 360 suburban, and 568 are rural (AACJC, 1983, p.2).

The passage of the Higher Vocational Schools Law by the Japanese Diet in 1975 signified the government's intention to enhance the status of further education postsecondary schools. A system of special (vocational) training colleges was established a year later to add diversity and flexibility to junior colleges (both public and private) that proliferated after World War II. At present, courses in the Special Training Colleges directly relate to a specialized occupation, while those in Junior Colleges are, in general, modifications of academic tradition, i.e., classified under the familiar disciplines of Literature, Philosophy, and Applied Science (Kanbayashi, 1981, pp. 476, 482-83). While quite similar in curriculum and therefore in direct competition for students, these two systems are responding to social pressure for diverse postsecondary opportunities. Higher education in Japan is no longer entirely monopolized by the traditional university.

The rapid expansion of short-cycle higher education through either of the three methods mentioned has introduced a wide variety of courses

and services to groups heretofore unserved. At the same time, pressure on the university system has been eased, allowing an interval for them to respond to socio-economic and technological needs.

Regionality, briefly reviewed in this discussion, is a newer dimension in the development of short-cycle institutions (SCIs). First noted in the United States with the shift from local junior colleges to more regionalized community colleges, regional orientation requires a close collaboration with manpower and other educational requirements of larger sectors of the society. Regional requirements are thus added to those of the nation as a whole. SCIs serving less developed areas are likely to be disadvantaged in general reputation since they must concentrate on the lower technician levels. At the same time, they still must attempt to meet university academic standards.

Purpose III

TO PROVIDE A DIVERSITY OF RELEVANT STUDIES PRIMARILY IN MANPOWER AREAS

Manpower short courses leading to immediate employment or qualification for licensure examinations continue to be the most popular objective of short-cycle higher education. Except for the American junior college which is more academic and a handful of postcompulsory and/or upper-secondary university-prep schools, virtually all others give priority attention to manpower requirements.

The Sri-Lankan government was one of the first third-world nations to create a system of short-cycle institutions. Established by the Higher Education Act of 1966, six junior university colleges were opened in the island nation in 1969 with the primary objective of developing manpower career programs in Agriculture, Industry, Commerce, and Service

Occupations (Kintzer, 1970, pp. 79-80). Although terminated in an unpredicted change of governments after only two years, the concepts of greater access, flexibility, and relevance appear to have gained permanent recognition. A return visit in 1974 provided evidence that the Sri Lankan experiment had not been entirely forgotten. Several of the Junior University Colleges had been re-opened as upper-secondary schools, by a returning government of the 1969 persuasion, and one had become a campus of the Sri Lanka University System with some technical programming.

The creation of Više škole (two-year postsecondary single-purpose technical colleges) in Yugoslavia also addressed educational reform that became a high priority effort of the new ruling class following the devastation of World War II. The General Law on Faculties and Universities adopted in 1960 recommended three self-contained but interrelated units: Više škole (higher schools), Višoke škole (specialized academics) and Universities (Kintzer, 1978, pp. 90-91). The gap between secondary school and university graduates--between semi-skilled and skilled workers and the theory and design specialists--was to be reduced. Under the emerging decentralization process, national educational guidelines and policies began to be adopted by individual Yugoslav republics and autonomous provinces.

In a similar effort to close the gap in the amount of knowledge and skill declared necessary for the development of a productive society, the Irish Government opened five regional technical colleges in 1970. By 1978, four more had been added. A terse statement submitted in 1967 to the Minister of Education by the Steering Committee on Technical Education acknowledged that Ireland had largely failed to provide technical training for a society attempting to strengthen its economy, and urgently

recommended the establishment of the Regional Technical College System. Creation of the colleges further encouraged rudimentary course articulation. Vertical progression is now possible, beginning with foundation craft certificates offered by the colleges, to technical diploma courses given by the National Institutes of Higher Education (in Limerick and Dublin), and to corresponding university degrees. However, this transfer program is still in the experimental stages, and thus far has involved only a few of the most promising students (Kintzer, 1981, p. 57).

Zaire and Kenya are among the few African nations to develop short-cycle systems for lower and middle-level technicians. Two types of institutions are available to secondary school graduates in Zaire. About 15 institutes provide 3-year programs in elementary and lower-secondary teacher training, and two more years of advanced certificate training. A similar number of institutes offer 3-year technical courses in Agriculture, Technical Engineering, Business and other vocational fields. Again, obtaining university advanced standing credit at the institutes is virtually impossible.

In Kenya, eight Harambee Institutes of Technology were in operation in 1977, providing two-year courses in Electrical and Mechanical Engineering, Agriculture, Secretarial Training, Garment Manufacturing, and similar occupations. Unfortunately, the Harambee Institutes apparently exist more on paper than in fact. Although education has been given strong budgetary support by the government, little has been allocated to the short-cycle schools. While strongly supported regionally by enthusiastic local school groups and private enterprise, the institutes are "second best" in the national hegemony (Cardinal, 1981).

The attention of the Kenyan government has now turned to vocational universities. This interest, apparently developing in other African nations, is in part the result of the failure of traditional long-cycle academic education to solve socio-economic problems. It is conceivable that forms of short-cycle higher education will appear on the continent, but the tradition of moving up the professional ladder is still popular, and remains a heavy motivator for early entrance into the presitgious professions, at all cost.

Preparation for a vocation relevant to the socio-economic and technological situation of the nation has become the principle purpose of short-cycle institutions. American two-year colleges are shifting in that direction, and as other systems are formed, the manpower supply function emerges as the primary obligation. Although this weakens the traditional relationship between secondary and higher education, SCIs can at least gain some recognition as the only purveyors of vocational-technical education.

Purpose IV

TO FACILITATE NON-TRADITIONAL PRACTICES

The phrase, "non-traditional practices," refers to instructional innovations (new delivery systems designed for part-time adults, and individualized instruction) organizational components (work study, scheduling and calendar adjustments) and flexible programming (education for leisure, self-fulfillment, individual development). This, of course, does not imply that universities are not involved in innovational practices. A report of a world tour completed in 1976 by Herbert W. Wey, then Chancellor of Appalachian State University, identifies hundreds of modifications of programs and activities undertaken by universities,

suggesting the recognition of the university role in meeting societal needs (Wey, 1976). Several recent OCED studies account for university-sponsored non-traditional development. Evidence of university change is consistently appearing in professional journals and the popular press, e.g., The Chronicle for Higher Education.

DISTINGUISHING CHARACTERISTICS

In addition to qualities identified in the discussion of purposes, the following are distinguishing characteristics of short-cycle higher education. Obviously, some are more universally found than others, and exist in varying degrees within and among systems:

1. A compulsory school completion certificate is the basic entrance requirement. Remediation responsibilities and compensatory education assigned short-cycle institutions, particularly in the United States, have changed this basic requirement. Short-cycle institutions do not offer long-cycle (university) degrees. Academic curricula, if offered, are limited to approximately half of the first university degree.
2. Fees and other students charges are comparatively low.
3. Instruction is accented. Research as a requirement for faculty promotion is not emphasized. This emphasis is unfortunately reversing, particularly in university-sponsored short-cycle systems, e.g., American university two-year colleges, and similar organizations in Yugoslavia and throughout Latin America.
4. Programmatic relevancy is a universal consideration. Development of "allmennfag" or essentailly environmental and cultural studies was a responsiblity given to the Norwegian short-cycle colleges.

For several years, "allmennfag" was promoted, but has recently declined (Kyvik, pp. 105-108).

5. Decision-making is frequently more decentralized with stronger student and community input. In the early stages of the Norwegian college system, students were members of council decision-making boards and curriculum planning committees. That, too, has apparently diminished.
6. Practitioner non-degree professionals are engaged as teachers on part-time assignments. The practitioner orientation dominates short-cycle technical institutes wherever located.
7. Continuing or recurrent education and responsiblity for facilitating community educational activities are often among the recognized goals of short-cycle colleges.

ISSUES

Nations contemplating or currently engaged in structural and organizational change in education face many complex and interrelated issues. Major areas of concern will be discussed under three broad areas: (1) policy formation, (2) implementation (structure and organization; and regulating, coordinating, financing, and planning, and (3) problems associated with quality. Directions taken by various countries will be contrasted.

Policy Formation

Developing educational priorities, a most difficult and arduous task, is the initial obligation of nations committed to major educational change. Pressure from unserved groups is often the early catalyst. Economic and political conditions are complicating factors, particularly the third-world countries where crucial weaknesses are recognized at multiple levels within the educational system. Education for whom and at what level? How to prioritize the need? Elementary (or primary) or secondary? Upper-secondary or higher education? Should literacy training be given higher ranking than job skills training? Should professional education be placed above semi-professional education? Answers to these and related questions are eventually formulated in a series of policy statements, and machinery for implementation is then established. The total process involves the interplay of many factors and for the national good invariably results in the compromising of positions among constituencies. The implementation process, in particular, is:

> . . . a complex relationship between formal goals, the relation between means and ends, the dispositions of the implementing organs, the actions of interest groups, general structures of

society, and economic, social, and political conditions (Kyvik, 1981:1, p. 27).

In the case of Norway, these complex relationships appeared to have been successfully resolved. Through five reports prepared between 1966 and 1970, the Ottosen-Committee proposed some changes in university education, but also gave major attention to the regional concept of short-cycle higher education. The recommendations were strongly supported by the Ministry and Parliament. Primarily because of resistance from existing colleges and the University, the regional integration notion was postponed in favor of autonomous district colleges established on a four-year trial basis. This gave time to work out some of the major issues, e.g., vocational education vs. university education, vocational vs. general education, terminal studies vs. preparation for advanced studies, and teaching vs. research. The experimental period also provided an interval to perfect the regional service concept. Important features of the new colleges were handled with great skill. The principals were approved by the University, the college faculties were given comparable pay, and local committees were allowed considerable flexibility. The full story of the Norwegian reaction to the question, education for whom and at what level, is detailed in the Kyvik report.

Careful preparation and political skill exercised by the Norwegian Ministry and Parliament also characterized the development of short-cycle higher education in New Zealand. Technical institutes were established in the larger communities on both islands following the passage of the Education Act of 1964. However, Labor Party planning documents for the 1972 national election, foresaw a community institution which could expand the training needs of a region to include adult and continuing

education. Persuasive arguments for a new tertiary level school were presented as an election manifesto (this story is told in a National Council of Adult Education publication, "Community Colleges and Community Learning Needs," by W. L. Renwick, Director-General of Education).

Regional survey reports preceded the establishment of a series of community colleges, first in 1974 for the Hawke's Bay area, and within two years, similar planning documents for the Northland, Rotorua, and Southland regions. The last , in Invercargill, is the world's southernmost short-cycle college.

In Ireland, a series of "white papers" developed by the Ministry during the same period introduced a new curriculum for the primary level, free second level education, and announced the expansion of a short-cycle level regional technical college system. Although established quickly, the early planning for the RTCs was maneuvered with great political aplomb. Most of the RTC energy was immediately directed toward short courses upgrading techincal skills. While general and liberal education components--two and three year certificate and diploma programs--were included in planning documents, warnings were sounded against over-extending university-preparation programs. The former development, techincal skills training, has far outstripped the success envisaged in 1967 (Kintzer, 1981).

In other settings, political considerations have remained paramount, and policy has been written and implemented largely on political specifications. Such was the situation in Sri Lanka, where almost single-handedly through poltical skill and personal charisma, Minister I.M.R.A. Iriyagolle (Education and Cultural Affairs) led the junior university college legislation through Parliament, and with a small band of enthusiasts and

Fulbright help from the United States, created the six short-cycle institutions. Although the system did not survive the change in governments two years later (from the pro-Western government of Dudley Senanayake to the pro-Eastern government of Mrs. Sirima R.D. Bandaranaike), the Sri Lankan experience is a good example of the importance of power politics in the complex process of educational policymaking.

Implementation

Implementation follows the ordering of priorities for national policy commitments. Questions on structure and organization, regulating, coordinating, financing, and planning are major concerns.

Structure and Organization

Should the responsibilities of manpower (technical) training and adult and continuing education be given to existing schools? Should a new system be created, or should the functions be shared by old and new institutions? While a new postcompulsory system has frequently been created to carry these services, the short-cycle institutions seldom have exclusive rights. The old and the new share and compete.

Throughout Western Europe, including Britain but excluding Ireland and Norway, and in virtually all of Latin America except for the English speaking countries of the Caribbean and Costa Rica in Central America, patterns of shared responsiblity are followed. Both France and Germany have established new types of institutions to provide more options and greater flexibilty. In France, the University Institutes of Technology (IUTs) were founded in 1966 to attempt to channel students into more economically relevant courses to meet manpower needs in both public and private sectors (Neave, 1983, p. 8). As a part of a university system

but under a different legal status, the IUTs are also selective. They specialize in the higher technologies. While the Institutes are improving in general reputation, they have not attracted large numbers of beginning students away from the universities. This, in part, is due to cut backs in capital construction.

A second group of short-cycle institutions, the Higher Technicians Sections, developed from secondary technical schools and are programmed to carry students through the first post-baccaleaureate year of skills training. These popular institutions have a dropout rate of approximately 10 percent. The figure for the IUTs is much higher--almost one-third. There is apparently little articulation between these two short-cycle institutions--the Higher Technicians Sections and the University Institutes of Technology.

Short-cycle higher education was introduced in the universities through the 1972 reforms, but not in the Grandes Ecoles which unlike prestigious institutions in other European countries remain virtually untouched (Neave, 1983, pp. 5, 8, and 13).

In 1968, the West German Lander agreed to establish short-cycle institutions. Engineering colleges and higher vocational schools became Fachhochschulen. Courses are generally 3 years in duration and are widely accepted as higher education. Comprehensive universities, Gesamthochschulen, were also established in the early 1970s, in part, to integrate non-university and university curricula. Fachochschulen graduates may matriculate in any university program. Between 6 and 12 percent of the graduates actually enroll in universities (Gieseke, 1981, p. 45).

Short-cycle higher education in Latin America is apparently developing as a shared responsibility of exisiting institutions. According to Martorana:

> No significant move appears to be underway in any country to make short-cycle post-secondary education the sole function of a particular kind of institution or even the primary function among several to be performed (Martorana, 1981, p. 12).

In many Latin nations, such programs are found in pedagogical and polytechnic institutes, technological university institutes, university colleges, and national universities. For example, four middle-level institutes prepare technicians in Venezuela, including the experimental Colegios Universitarios which also offer university-level basic instruction. Similar relationship problems are recognized in Colombia where the University Institutes and the National Apprentice Service Centers (SENA) are both assigned middle-level manpower training responsibilities. In Peru, the Higher Schools of Professional Education (ESEPs) a unit of the higher education reform system, overlap considerably with existing higher technical institutions, including schools of nursing, administration, and military, national, and specialized institutes.

In Mexico, preparation for a vocation and the right to practice vocation are shared by various types of upper-secondary schools, as well as colleges and universities. Except for teacher training, no constitutional restrictions are placed on upper-secondary education. While they may not have official validity, any individual or organization can offer any kind of upper-secondary program. The course validity process has strong political overtones, particularly in programs where registering with the Ministry of Education or other ministries is required prior to practice (Villa, Chapter III).

Two types of institutions share responsibility for non-degree vocational technical education in Japan. As mentioned earlier, Junior Colleges and the more recently created Special Vocational Training Colleges are beginning to compete for students. Both systems provide only terminal courses. In contrast, the Republic of China (Taiwan) operates a complex system of 2-year, 3-year, and 5-year Junior Colleges. The 2-year system admits graduates from vocational schools, the 3-year colleges recruit senior high graduates, and the 5-year system admits graduates from junior high schools following 9-years of free compulsory schooling. Graduates of all three types are eligible to enter 4-year programs at the National Taiwan Institute of Technology, the only senior technical college in the country (Hsia, p. 32).

In England, Scotland, and Wales, the major functions of short-cycle higher education--non-degree technical training and adult and continuing education--are implemented by a variety of institutions. Polytechnics and Colleges of Further Eduation share the former responsibility, and the Open University and some of the Colleges of Education, the latter.

The Colleges of Further Education in Britain and Australia are identified with short-cycle higher education as here defined. The term "further education" has similar uses throughout Britain. Further education refers to any post-compulsory school offering a reasonably diversified program at the non-degree level including cultural and leisure time courses and activities for adults, and maintaining a degree of flexibility in scheduling, programming, and instructional methodology. In England, Wales, and Ulster, establishments of further education actually include some of the polytechnics and direct grant institutions, and in Scotland, the central institutions and the education authority colleges. The

central institutions are generally the Scottish counterparts of the English polytechnics, offering the same level of education and professional training. Both are primarily concerned with advanced diplomas and degrees with professional (vis-a-vis academic) emphasis. In recent years, these schools have been advancing further education principles. The newer polytechnics in England, Wales, and the single institution in Ulster tend to be more comprehensive.

There are two other short-cycle forms in England; the Sixth Form Colleges and Tertiary Colleges. The former are essentially university preparatory institutions, and the latter are broadly-based, enrolling all levels of preparation from the postcompulsory cohort. Both are postcompulsory level institutions. Some of the Tertiary Colleges are called Regional Colleges, suggesting their programmatic emphasis.

In Australia, the Technical and Further Education Colleges, most numerous in New South Wales, are also by definition short-cycle higher education. Non-vocational and non-technical subjects have been added in recent years to serve the interests of the general adult population. The same structure is found in South Australia. In other studies and the ACT (Federal Government District), the TAFEs are governed and managed through the state education departments.

The TAFE System in New South Wales has been progressively decentralized in accordance with the TAFE Act of 1974. Regional directors, colleges principals, and heads of schools have become autonomous in day-to-day decision-making.

The six streams of study, i.e., professional (leading to but not culminating in a university degree), para-professional, trades (occupations for which apprenticeship exists), other skilled, preparatory (matriculation

and diploma entrance courses), and adult education, are similar to the offerings of other short-cycle systems. The Colleges of Advanced Education (CAEs) prominent in Victoria are roughly comparable to the polytechnics of Britain and New Zealand, i.e., between universities and further education colleges, and are therefore not classified as short-cycle institutions.

As described, short-cycle higher education in Latin American nations is attached to universities. Often referred to as university colleges, these sub-university units tend to function more like mini-universities, popularizing and emphasizing university preparation. Those units that are shifted from independent status to university sponsorship tend in time to lose the distinctive qualities characterizing short-cycle higher education. Technical courses become more theoretical/less practical, and research emerges as the prominent faculty orientation.

A similar shift is occurring in Yugoslavia where for two decades virtually all of the single technology Viša Škole had remained independent of university faculties. In the same legislation creating independent Viša Škole (The General Law on Faculties and Universities of 1960) the Universities were encouraged to organize their own short-cycle programs to cut costs and to improve quality which was allegedly weaker in the Viša Škole. While there appear to be advantages to this single unit structuring, e.g., cheaper maintenance, simpler articulation, uniform quality, and easier communication among the two units, losses are likely to be more severe. Both units, short-cycle and university faculties, are apt to lose identity, especially the former which would be attempting to blend into the established university system. Potential for innovation and experimentation would likely lessen because of the more influential

traditional, slower-to-change university. Under the domination of the university faculty, vocational components of courses would probably be weakened. Courses of study under university faculty control would, in time, become more theoretical and less functional.

Attempts have been initiated to correct the over-emphasis on theory and loss of practical experience in the northernmost Yugoslavian Republic, Slovenia. The experiment at Maribor, the economic and cultural center of northeast Slovenia, combines the first level (four semesters) and the second-level (four semesters) in a single administrative unit. Developed in the mid-1970s, leaders of the Maribor project claim that short-cycle/long-cycle amalgamation has resulted in higher status, wider acceptability, and better quality for both non-degree and degree programs, and the students enrolled in them. Affiliation appears now to be the official stance of several Republics, notably Croatia and Bosnia-Herzegovina. Visa Skole, particularly those sponsoring Engineering Technology, are in fact being reorganized as units of university engineering faculties. Although the concept of using similar or the same curricula for academic preparation and employment remains untested, potential losses appear to outweigh potential gains in uniting short- and long-cycle organizations.

A similar phenomenon is found in the United States. Approximately 100 branch campuses of universities--university colleges--are active in at least 15 states. Ohio leads with nearly 30 campuses of a total of 10 universities. As the name implies, these institutions are mainly academic and give less attention to technical training. A few combine the two curricula.

Still another adaptation, the multi-unit university, provides a natural linkage between short- and long-cycle institutions. Also called

"upper division colleges," these long-cycle and graduate schools are found in about a dozen states. Florida Illinois, New York, and Texas have two or more such institutions that enroll only upper division and/or graduate students. A critical linkage is thereby created automatically. Success of this relationship depends on cooperative planning and a carefully organized communication system. Competing traditional universities in the same state and the tendency of upper-level faculties to emulate research faculties are two primary reasons for the current instability of the Florida upper-level schools. Four of them within the state system will soon be allowed to enroll freshmen, thus weakening the linkage with community colleges.

The lower division/upper division relationship has, in fact, been established in Quebec, Canada, as the primary avenue for university entrance. Quebec universities are upper-level/graduate institutions, and while they are selective, admission is granted only after completion of a two-year academic diploma from a provincial CEGEP (College d'Enseignement General). Like American community colleges, the CEGEPs are comprehensive, offering 3-year vocational-technical terminal curricula. Adult and Continuing Education is also available, but is not emphasized. High cost of the extension-type programs is one reason (Whitelaw, 1978). A high school leaving certificate is the normal entrance requirement to a CEGEP.

A number of countries around the world have created a new kind of institution to deliver the major functions of short-cycle higher education. Institutions assigned these obligations frequently do not have exclusive responsibliity, and except for a few situations identified, cooperation among these sharing/competing units appears to be minimal.

Regulating, Coordinating, Financing, and Planning

Who should regulate and coordinate the effort to serve new clineteles? Should this be the exclusive privilege of the national government? How much authority should be given to regional organizations and municipalities to formulate and implement policy? What planning strategies should be devised to provide consistent direction to short-cycle higher education? How should short-cycle systems be financed?

American educators and politicians have struggled longest with these matters. For decades, implementation responsibilities for two-year colleges remained largely with school districts. Under state school law, locally elected boards were responsible for establishing district policy, first as districts responsible for 14 years of schooling, and later as college districts separate from compulsory education. While the Federal Government has greatly increased its policy and regulatory powers over universities, far fewer benefits and influences have been directed toward short-cycle institutions. Federal student loan legislation is the major exception. Only recently have two-year colleges become eligible for other support monies.

The 1972 Amendments to the Higher Education Act gave great impetus to state regulatory power and marked the beginning of state-dominated short-cycle systems. Legislation in various states following the California Proposition 13 tax reform act hastened the control of short-cycle programming and the institutions, themselves, through state financing packages. Other funding source possibilities have still not been exploited. The future of American short-cycle higher education appears now to rest in large measure with the executive and legislative branches of state government.

Master planning continues to lag. State plans of a previous generation placed the major short-cycle functions in particular types of institutions. Technical institutes handle technical-vocational education in Indiana, while California community colleges have that responsibility. University colleges and community colleges in the United States provide transfer education, but adult and continuing education is universally offered by all institutions, secondary and post-secondary, and various agencies, both public and private. While differentiations are tried in some states (Wisconsin's two systems, the university centers and the vocational-technical and adult education institutes, are unique) adult education has escaped long range planning.

Master planning in other nations has also lagged. As writers, including Berdahl, McConnell, Medsker, and others, have continually pointed out, national planning is crucially important. A generation ago, manpower planning was widely practiced in developing nations, but was largely abandoned as the translation of predictions into educational policy became virtually impossible.

Expansion of the role of the British prototype University Grants Commission to include planning and fund allocation is being attempted in Southeast Asian countries, notably Thailand, where a single community college is now operating under the sponsorship of Songkla University. A new superboard called the Tertiary Education Commission has been created by the Australian Federal Government. This body, combining the University Commission, the Commission on Advanced Education, and the Technical and Further Education Commission, advises the Government on the future of tertiary education. Even in these multi-layered situations, however, university autonomy is protected, and short-cycle higher education

remains vulnerable to university domination. The time lag between decision and implementation continues to be a chronic problem for the superboards.

Financing higher education systems is obviously a difficult issue. Providing free education beyond the early compulsory years for the masses is virtually impossible. Education expenditures have not matched the rapid expansion of services. Prioritizing the functions of short-cycle institutions, combining short- and long-cycle programs, curtailing expansion, and tightening student eligibility are occurring internationally. Some countries are now beginning to rely more heavily on private institutions and different types of universities to carry the burden.

In the United States, short-cycle state systems have pioneered money-saving schemes, e.g., less formal "non-campus" colleges and other administrative arrangements to save construction and managerial costs. Considerable attention is being given to scientific marketing management and development of computer-inspired systems for mass delivery of short-cycle course materials via satellites. Miami Dade Community College (Florida) is one of the leaders of the former development to improve student advisement, curtail attrition, and tighten graduation standards. Coast Community College District in Southern California is responsible for developing and distributing satellite programming.

Tapping other sources of financial assistance, especially business and industry, is now well underway in this country. Two recent issues of the quarterly New Directions for Experiential Learning, describe alliances with business and labor unions in the search of greater diversification of financial support and methods for delivering postcompulsory education (see bibliography, items 12 and 25).

Quality

With the continuing diversification of higher education, relationships between short-cycle and long-cycle institutions become infinitely more complex, and differences between them are increasingly blurred. Academic drift is recognizable in both directions. For reasons not always educationally sound, universities assume short-cycle responsibilities (short courses for mid-management and adult education), and SCIs adopt university qualities (more emphasis on research and less practical application). Except for the United States, Canada, and to a lesser extent in Norway, Ireland, and New Zealand, course and credit exchange is minimal. While the articulation relationship does occur regionally, agreements that are national in scope simply do not exist.

The major obstacle to university acceptance of credits from short-cycle institutions is the alleged inferior course quality and questionable competence of instruction. As short-cycle colleges shift from academic studies--their heritage--the question of quality is likely to intensify. Too frequently, their general reputation suffers as more attention is given to less noble responsibilities, e.g., vocational education and adult and continuing education, however vital these are to the society.

The reputation of the American two-year college has been directly tied to the success of its academic transfer students in senior colleges and universities. Although slow in developing on a national scale, the original two-year junior colleges gained early support from mid-western universities, e.g., Chicago, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, as 14th year graduates did well in upper division studies. Universities across the country remained apprehensive until evidence emerged proving that university-bound students were adequately prepared.

However, recent evidence of diminishing success and retention rates of current transfers within California higher education, in both the University and State University systems, has weakened this success story. While in other states, including several where documentation is available, e.g., Arizona and Illinois, transfer students continue to maintain records at least equal to university "native" students, California community colleges, in general, are currently struggling to rebuild the quality of transfer programs.

Deterioration of transfer education has been accompanied by a weakening of the Liberal Arts in Community Colleges. Cohen was one of the first to point out that liberal education in the two-year college is virtually non-existent (Cohen, 1969).

Heavy responsibilities for remediation (developmental education) and financial deficiencies are two explanations for the drop in transfer quality. Other deficiencies appear to be partially responsible. Astin (1977) was persuaded from analysis of data from his longitudinal studies that students who begin lower division baccalaureate work at a community college have less chance of graduating with the B.A. degree than those who start at universities. A major concern was the absence of residential experiences.

Criticism associated with transfer education does not imply that creditable occupational and continuing education programs and activities are not viable reputation builders. Other nations identified in this text, notably Norway and Australia, are experiencing broad support through occupational programs. A similar upswing in popularity was also documented in France and Germany. In all four cases, however, the improved situation for short-cycle institutions is coming from the public and governments rather than the national universities.

Other critics have attacked the community college sorting role and attitude toward its general student population. Karabel (1972) referred to community colleges as tracking stations rather than democratizers. Zwerling (1975) was more specific. He felt that vocational education in two-year colleges was a way to provide access to higher education without disturbing the existing social order, thereby perpetuating the economically underprivileged. London (1978) added to the argument that urban community colleges, in particular, reinforce students' social class and magnify frustrations of "blue collar" students.

While deterioration of transfer education in certain sections of the country should not be denied or minimized, that function should be placed in realistic perspective. Enrollment patterns have shifted radically in the nation's community colleges now showing a majority of total enrollees in terminal programs leading to jobs in a multiplicity of technical fields. Retraining of the academically-prepared has also grown dramatically. Community college students simply no longer fit the vertical focus of the former junior colleges. They have ceased to come from high school in large numbers, and are not wanting to complete university baccaluareates.

Furthermore, two-year college leaders should not attempt to deny that some community colleges, particularly urban colleges, may well be tracking stations that continue class stratification. Careful attention should be paid to the offices responsible for student advisement and testing.

Status--the search for identity--continues to be a problem for short-cycle higher education. Despite a certain level of acceptance in some countries by the established higher education "royalty," SCIs still

seek recognition in a highly resistant society. The search for esteem and identity continues, despite the progress identified in this paper.

Recognition equal to the level of esteem accorded national universities may be unnecessary and unrealistic, if not futile. As Clark pointed out in his summary of the OECD/Grenoble (France) Conference held in 1971, short-cycle institutions can still be well-considered for their contributions. They can "march to a different drummer" and develop "an alternative institutional profile." "A firm self-concept [he concluded] is essential to their promising new role in society" (Clark, 1971, p. 392).

The sense of this position has been confirmed by the American experience. In states where two-year colleges have emulated universities, they have remained poor "seconds;" where differentiation has been the key to development, they have prospered. How to balance the sharing of responsibilities for new programs and services is a key issue. Extreme positions are unrealistic, i.e., certain functions for certain institutions without compromise, or grossly overlapping functions among various higher education systems. Some duplication is desirable. However, success of the reform movements is directly dependent on identification of national purposes, a broadly communicated plan for achieving them, and carefully developed relationships among units of the total enterprise. Linkages are vital to the long-term stability of the entire educational system.

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